Contracts, p.63.

231 and if after a few years by selling the young bulls, the skins, the
422 horns, the milk, and the butter, he has made enough money to
427 buy a head of cattle, the latter is not an imbata, but an impahano (2).

2. Cf. Property, Ownership of Cattle, p. 43.

422 If a Muhutu, the umugaragu of a Mututsi, marries his
583 daughter and receives a milch cow as dowry, the latter is not an
192 imbata, but an inkwano, and the shebuja of the son-in-law can take
231 it back. In effect, it is the social position of the Muhutu which entitled him to collect a dowry in cattle. If he had not been a client of a Mututsi, he would have received as dowry only hoes or goats. [49]

231 INTUNDANO. (1) Cow bought in the market with the salary
422
192 1. From kutunda, "to do business."

earned at the mines in exchange for goats or baskets of beans. It is an imbata.

INDUNDU. Cow acquired in immediate full ownership without the condition that the buyer should later make an additional payment. Indundu is opposed to ingwate (2).

2. See further on, p. 46.

[431] INKAZIBITI. Cows given without fee by the patron to a client who has paid homage (guhakwa). To take possession of cows promised by the shebuja is called kujya ku ilembo (lit., to cross the threshold of the rugo). The first cow received under these conditions is called inka y'igiti (3); the second, impetano; the others

3. Literally, "cow of the tree trunk."

do not have a special name. A father can also give some inkazibiti to his wives and sons.

231 422 192 ●431 INGABANE. When a Mututsi who has paid homage to the Mwami receives from him a hill with cattle and abagaragu, the said cattle is called ingabane (4). A herd of ingabane consists of at

4. From kugabana, "to receive."

least 30 heads of cattle, cows, calves, heifers, and young bulls.

A simple Mututsi with no political authority may receive some ingabane and some inkazibiti. But the favor of the Mwami makes him considered an important person. He is the Mwami's umugaragu.

The Bahutu usually receive only inkazibiti.

INDEMANO. (5). a) Cows of the same color and age, given

5. From kulema, "to create," "to form," "to assemble."

by a father to his son when the latter is about to get married. The whole of the indemano is called iminani.

[50]

b) By a patron to a client of whom he is fond and who is going to get married.

c) By a husband to his wife.

The indemano are also ingabane.

After these various distributions, the cattle remaining to the master make up the ingarigari (reserved cows).

422 231 192 INGARIGARI. Cows which the master keeps for his own pleasure and personal use without giving any to his wives, sons, or friends, or without leasing them out to any abagaragu.

425 231 192 INKUKE (1). a) A son, who has received from his father

1. From gukura, "to take away," "to remove."

indemano, returns a milch cow (inkuke) to his father which has been taken from among the indemano. When it no longer gives any milk the father sends it back to his son.

425 INYARULEMBO. Cows which continue to belong to a
231 Mututsi shepherd, but which may be at the home of one of his wives
192 or of an umugaragu. They remain near the master's dwelling, for they are to provide the milk needed for him and his family. Indemano given by a [52] cattle owner are called inyarulembo. Cows bought by a Mututsi umugaragu (intundano) are also called inyarulembo. On the other hand, those acquired by a Mututsi who has entered into a clientele contract become ingabane.

583 INKWANO. Milch cow given or received as dowry for the
231 marriage of a daughter or sister. It becomes imbata.
192

INDONGORANYO (1). Head of cattle given to the young couple by the wife's parents, and sometimes by the husband's parents. Among the chiefs, the indongoranyo is given immediately after the marriage as a sign of friendship. Among the other Batutsi, the indongoranyo is given to the young woman by her father when she visits her parents after the birth of her first child.

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431
231

1. From kurongoranya, "to help set up housekeeping."

IY'URUGORI (2). Milch cow or heifer which a young mother receives from her father or her father-in-law, unless she has already had an indongoranyo bestowed on her. If the marriage is broken, the urugori is not claimed from the wife's family.

[301]

2. From the name of the sorghum-straw band worn by Banyarwanda mothers on their heads.

[60] IY'ICHYARI. The daughter-in-law is not allowed to see her father-in-law during the first days of marriage. When he lifts the interdiction, the father-in-law can give an ichyari to the young couple. Among the Bahutu, a sheep or a goat is given instead of a cow.

431 IY'IGISAGE. Cow given by a father to his son when the
192 latter reaches the age of six or seven years old. At that moment,
231 the hairdress he has worn until then (igisage) is changed to one called
302 amasunzu (3). The Muhutu child receives at the same age two or three banana trees.

3. Hair dressed in the shape of a coxcomb or a crescent.

192 231 431 IMPONGANO. A cow given to appease the anger of the king or one of the provincial chiefs.

2) A cow given to a friend of the Mwami to thank him for his intervention with the king.

IZIMANO. The first time a great provincial chief goes to visit another, the host gives his guest a milch cow.

Similarly, if the king or a provincial chief visits one of their abagaragu, he is given a calf.

INJISHYWA. A cow that accompanies a noble Mututsi when he visits a provincial chief or the Mwami on business or to pay homage. It is meant to provide him with the milk necessary for food.

427 192 231 INDAGIZO. (2). A cow which the depositor (uwaragije) entrusts

> 2. From kulagiza, "to give on trust in order to pasture."

to someone who owns a better pasture than his, but the trustee (uwaragiywe) does not become umugaragu. The latter must return the cow when it has calved, but he has the right to the milk for two months if the cow is young, and for a fortnight if it is not. If the calf dies, the trustee has the right to the milk one day out of four.

[55]

231 192 INTAHIRA (1). This is the best of the cows held by an umugaragu.

> 1. From gutahira, "to come in front," "to precede," "to lead."

He always makes it walk at the head of the herd. The holder can take its milk (intagemura, lit., to keep the milk for one's self), but the calves must return to the owner.

192 231 437 INGWATE. Primus, who owns a bull calf (inguzwa) or a sterile cow (also inguzwa), asks Secundus, who has a heifer (ingwate), if he is willing to exchange on the following conditions:

a) If the heifer has a female calf (umukangara), Primus will keep it and its mother for a length of time to be agreed upon, usually two years. Secundus will then take back the cow and its calf and in addition will keep the inguzwa.

192 437 231 b) If the heifer has a male calf, Secundus takes it at once and Primus keeps the mother for two years. The milk is divided between the two contracting parties as follows: Secundus has the right to the milk for four days, Primus for two days, and the shepherd one day a week.

c) If the heifer dies before having a calf, Primus takes the skin and Secundus keeps the inguzwa. To avoid leaving the heifer with Primus for two years, Secundus gives the other contracting party a pregnant cow (ingenzura) and takes back the ingwate and its young (female or male calf). There are then two possibilities:

a) The ingenzura bears a female calf; Primus claims it.

1) Secundus accepts and takes back the ingenzura.

2) Secundus refuses. Primus keeps the ingenzura and its calf, and does not give any of the milk until another cow is given him. [56]

b) The ingenzura gives birth to a male calf.

1) Secundus agrees to give Primus an umukangara and takes back the cow and its calf.

2) Secundus refuses. Primus keeps the ingenzura and its calf. He will return the calf only after it is weaned. He waits for the cow to have a female calf.

IGICHANIRO (1). Primus who wishes to have a bull calf gives

> 1. The igichaniro is, strictly speaking, the fire lit in the kraal to protect the cows from the cold.

all his cows as a pledge (kugwatiriza) to Secundus, yet keeps them at his home. After two years, Primus gives a female calf to Secundus. If he refuses, Secundus would have the right to take a milch cow (gukubitira).

If the contract concerns goats, the fact that Secundus pays himself if Primus refuses is called gufatira.

192 431 231 INDABUKIRANO (2). 1) At the accession of the king, his abagaragu

> 2. From kurabukira, "to offer an accession gift to the king."

and all the provincial chiefs must each give one or two cows in homage to the king.

2) When an umutware w'intebe, an ichibiri, or an igisonga (3)

> 3. Cf. Government and Administration, Political Divisions, p. 85.

192 is appointed, the owners of several heads of cattle must present him with
431 a cow. The abagaragu can, but are not obliged to, do likewise.
231 3) When the king or an umutware dismisses or despoils a chief, the abagaragu of the new chief can also each give him an indabukirano. The Bahutu give goats, sheep, and hoes. [57]

192 INTORE. 1) Like the king, certain great chiefs possess a corps of
231 intore (dancing pages) (1) (2). A rich Mututsi's child who goes to a
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1. From gutora, "to take," or gutorana, "to levy," "to choose."

2. Cf. Government and Administration, The Intore, p. 78.

provincial chief to become a page brings him a y'intore cow, which is given to the umutware y'intore (commander of the pages), who thus becomes in a way the shebuja of the child's father. The latter however is not held by any bond like an ordinary client.

192 2) Also called intore are the cows given compulsorily by the
231 abagaragu to a noble Mututsi who succeeds his father as head of the
651 family.

3) Tax paid in cows.

192 INGORORANO (3). Cow given to reward a warrior for his courage
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431

3. From kugurorera, "to gratify."

or for a service rendered. Whoever has cared well for the master's cows (inyarulembo) or ingarigari) or who has cultivated his fields well may receive a cow. To reward the umutware w'intore for his instruction, the father of a page also gives an ingororano.

192 UMUHETO. A cow taken with a bow and arrow (umuheto). This
231 used to be war booty. In the past this name was also given to the tax paid
727 by warriors.
651

192 IMIGOGORO (4). A cow sent every day to the white people to
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4. From mogogoro, "fatigue," "annoyance," "imposition." Before the Belgian occupation these cows were called imbyukuruke (lit., parade).

192 234 574 supply them with milk. In Kinyaga (Shangugu) and in Bugoyi, it is called umuheto. In Ndorwa it is called kibere. [58]

IMBYUKURUKE. A choice cow destined to be shown to a visiting high personage and to provide him with milk during his stay.

192 431 231 IBIHEMBO. Gift of cows to the wife of the king, a great chief, or a patron when she has a child.

The gift made by the Bahutu consisting simply of milk or beer is called y'ibihembo.

192 231 426 INTIZO (1). 1) A man who has been despoiled by his chief receives a cow from a friend as a loan (intizo) until justice is done. The friend may perhaps only give him milk (intizo), because by sending a cow he would ostensibly show his friendship and would thus risk incurring the wrath of the chief.

1. From gutiza, "to lend."

192 231 2) A cattle owner must give at least one milch cow to his cowherd (umushumba) who does not have time to cultivate for himself.

[465] 3) A Muhutu who cultivates the fields of a Mututsi receives milk (intizo) from him morning and evening.

4) A cow is given to two farmers who share the milk and the payments required in exchange (2).

2. Milking a cow is equal to the salary for one day of cultivation.

[681] 431 IMPONGANO. A cow given in reparation for an offense or as a present to the one (inshuti) whose intervention may help to win the lawsuit.

[696] INGURANO. A redemption cow given by a patron or the head of a family to keep the guilty one from being condemned. [59]

192 437 231 INKUNGURANYO (1). Primus, owner of a heifer approaches Secundus to ask him to exchange the cow for a female calf or for two bulls. They must not give anything in addition in order to have an absolute right over the exchanged object, but neither of them has the right to take back the exchanged value.

1. From gukunguranya, "to exchange two cows of equal value definitely and irrevocably."

272 jugular vein from a short distance, whereupon the blood spurts out swiftly. The arrow falls off immediately, and the blood is then caught in an earthenware pot. After two to four liters have been collected, the wound closes by itself. Part of the
262 warm blood is immediately drunk; the remaining larger part is boiled on the fire until it becomes solid, as in our black pudding. Then salt, beans, peas, and other ingredients are added, and the tasty meal (ikiremve) is eaten greedily (No. 19, p. 424).

Obviously, beef (injama) is eaten much more rarely. Since cattle are not regarded as food but as capital, there is beef to eat only when an animal has fallen or if it is killed for a sacrifice (cf. p. 136). Only the chiefs can indulge in the luxury of killing an animal for food from time to time. In this case almost always old steers or sterile cows are chosen. Cows that give milk or [46] breeding animals are never killed. The same is true for all Bahima people from Ankole (No. 26, p. 146) to Ufipa. The Bahutu, especially those on Lake Tanganyika, sometimes eat mutton and goat meat, although rarely; the Batwa also eat antelopes, gazelles, francolins, guinea fowl, ducks, etc., but neither they nor the Batussi or Bahutu will eat chicken (No. 19, p. 396). Beef is either eaten
252 raw, still warm if possible, or it is pierced with a wooden spit and roasted over the fire. It is cooked only very rarely.
439 Europeans, who are accustomed to eating meat, are able to buy
431 only sterile cows or defective steers when traveling through Urundi and Ruanda. Sometimes they receive them as a gift from the host. Even then the rules of custom require that the host or the person who sold the animal receives in return a hind leg, the skin, and horns: the leg for food, the horns as a cult object for the hut, and the skin as a bed cover or for making clothes -- especially for women and Batwa -- or to be sold to the trader.

439 According to all experience it is impossible to export live cattle in great numbers because they soon perish after leaving the highlands as a result of the change of fodder, the tsetse fly, and other infections which unfortunately are prevalent in East Africa. At present quite a large number of dried cattle hides

273 people, it is not out of virtue but simply because they do not have enough to eat and drink to satisfy their appetites. They could eat an ox at one sitting, and if they were given as much beer as they wanted, they would keep drinking from morning till night" (No. 19, p. 317). Drunkenness is not regarded as a shortcoming or a vice but as evidence of the prosperity or generosity of the host. After the millet and banana harvest, from July to September, is the time for brewing beer (kwenga insoga, kutoba), the period of gluttony and general drunkeness all over Urundi, and this continues until the provisions are exhausted. Often the last drop disppears down the gullet after not more than four weeks, and the thirsty souls have to remain
273 abstinent until the next harvest period. During the period of
574 carousal, singing and shouting can be heard issuing from most homesteads deep into the night, for there are no quiet and solitary drinkers. Drinking beer is always a social affair. One person after another invites friends and relatives to communal drinking bouts, and in this manner they make the rounds among all the families of friends, guzzling until nothing is left. In
[431] addition to this, pots filled with beer are given as presents or any suitable occasion, and then they are shared by receiver and donor together. Of course, beer is part of any kind of festive occasion which usually also includes dancing (see pp. 65, 125).
273 Since the banana beer, which is the most popular, is quite
579 potent and since, in addition, the Barundi are by nature easily
152 excited, the more advanced stages of such communal drinking bouts usually take a rather wild form. Quite regularly violent arguments ensue, and often fights result in which even lances are used, sometimes ending in manslaughter. In the latter case, the consequences for the families concerned are quite disastrous (see pp. 97, 105).

273 Significantly enough, beer-brewing among the Barundi
[462] is a task with which the women are charged. They are experts in this respect, but they also are hard drinkers. There are four different types of beer in Urundi. The most potent, popular, and widespread type is banana beer (insoga j'ivitoke). To

576 "ischo, scho, amascho"(cattle, cattle herd) are used frequently and signify that each wishes the other the greatest possible prosperity and happiness, namely, cattle. This is a very characteristic herdsmen's greeting which undoubtedly has been introduced by the Batussi (see p. 46).

● 431 576 [96] Giving and receiving presents (isimano, ingawano) play a very important role in social intercourse. This also takes various forms depending on the social status of the donor and recipient and the event which occasioned the present. In Urundi it is an extremely frequent custom to give presents out of friendship, respect, politeness, or as a sign of submission. However, only rarely is the donor unmotivated by selfishness. In most cases he aims at receiving a present in return to which, according to custom, he is in fact entitled. If a present is given to the mutwale, the aim is to secure his favor in official decisions. To discontinue exchanging presents is regarded as a sign of hostility, the rejection of a present is considered a serious insult. The gift to be presented, whether it consists of field produce, pots of honey, goats, jugs of beer, or something else, is placed at the feet of the recipient. At the same time the donor never fails to taste a little of the food presented in order to show that it is neither poisoned nor bewitched. Then the donor makes a solemn speech assuring the other person of his affection and respect and asking him to return these friendly feelings; finally he openly requests a nice return present. This is what custom demands. The recipient of the gift replies in the same solemn manner and in the end promises a return present or has it brought immediately. At the sight of the present the other person frequently breaks into shouts of joy or begins a wild dance. Custom also requires that a little portion of the present be returned at once to the donor. This, of course, considerably facilitates the giving of presents (No. 19, p. 87). The Batwa among themselves also practice these customs connected with the giving of present, but to their Barundi chiefs they may only present pots, iron tools, weapons, tobacco pipes, or firewood, and, under no circumstances, beer, honey, or other foodstuffs since a Murundi would never eat food given to him by a pariah.

[563]

423 dispersed areas. The chief would have his *ingo* (plural of *rugo*, residence) built on several hills, and usually establish one of his wives in each of them, to direct the centre entrusted to her. This is a very typical estate organitation : it is based on polygamy.

The position towards cattle-owners

422 We have said that the *mwami* did not possess the
661 land : neither has he any right of possession over the big cattle. The *mwami* would sometimes take cattle where he found them, but this was only a violent misuse of his tyrannical power. Batutsi and even Bahutu cattle-rearers are definitely the owners of their herds when, of course, the cattle are not simply entrusted to them.

231 These cattle can be given and this very thing adds
● 431 a great deal to their worth, for those who desire them are naturally attracted towards those who own them.
357 The king presents with cows the great who come to pay him homage. During the great annual sorghum festival, he ritually distributes cattle to some methodically chosen persons. The great men used to be surrounded, and are still, with a group of servants of various ranks : *ntore* (vassals who owed them a more important military aid than the average tenants), *bagendanyi* (young attendants charged to carry out their messages), *bakamyi* (young Batutsi entrusted with the milking of the cows), *abungere* who watch over the cattle), *bakeeri* (cooks), *inshoreke* (female attendants and servants). The most esteemed among these followers (*ntore*, *bagendanyi*, *bakamyi*) hope to receive cows one day, the *bakamyi* especially, on the day when they will leave the service to get married.

231 There are also the so-called cattle-contracts. Here
675 are the most interesting of them : (1) A cattle-owner gives someone a cow, in exchange, the donee will later
425 return a calf after the cow has calved two or three
554 times. (2) An important owner gives several cows to a man who must in his turn permanently provide him with a milch-cow. (3) The owner of an important herd entrusts a man with the breeding of several cows which he may use for milk and manure ; one of the cows will be his if the herd has prospered.

In all these cases, the recipient becomes the liege of the donor (or the depositor). In some cases, the recipient is considered a near relative, even a son of the donor and marriage impediments ensue from the assimilation. On the other hand, the higher the donor is socially speaking, the less he tries to derive material profit from these transactions : his real profit is in the power he acquires over the person of the recipient.

423 *The relations between agriculturists*

425 Similar ties may exist between agriculturists. The

423 typical case is that of a man who has been allowed to
425 establish himself on a specified spot on a hill, that is, on the hill-side, between the stony higher belt and the swampy valley bottom; this gives him rights over the whole ground above and below him, up to the pasture-lands and down to the papyrus; now there may remain an uncultivated part in this vertical tract of land: if another agriculturist wishes to establish himself there, he will have to ask for the former occupant's permission, which as a rule can be received in exchange for a present. If the present is important, this will be equivalent to a kind of sale; if it is not, the new-comer will become the man, the *muhutu*, of the first-comer; he will have to obey him and carry out what commissions the other cares to entrust him with. The same relationship may arise if the occupant of an *itongo* (singular of *amatongo*) surrenders to a new comer lands that were already cultivated.

Relationship between craftsmen and other elements of the population

463 Industrial production is almost totally domestic, to the making of back-cloths (*impuzu*); there are however a few skilled handicraftsmen: potters, blacksmiths, makers of millstones, milkpots, bracelets, shell-jewels. Before markets were introduced, goods
435 used to be exchanged for food-stuffs or scrap-iron. This bartering was and still is practiced in the *ingo* as before.

431 But, besides this universal barter-system, there is what I have thought fit to call 'baronial exchange': it is practised among members of the aristocracy
435 only; it consists in offering members of the ruling
565 class some specified goods, in exchange for a cow; but this cow is admittedly worth more than the presented goods. Consequently, the giver of the goods will feel bound to go on making presents, until the recipient of them judges he is indebted in his turn and it is appropriate to bestow another cow. Of course, the recipient of the cows becomes the *muhutu* of the donor. I have gathered several instances of this relationship based on inequality: it occurs among salt-makers, blacksmiths, copper bracelets, pedlars (*abayangayanga*).

Women's activities

462 The wives of the great live in almost complete
461 inactivity; their *inshoreke* (attendants) do the domestic work for them ('they sweep the floor') or more delicate work (as fine basket-work). Only women till the land and make pots in Batwa households. Bahutu women till the land, sometimes, but not always, with the help of their husbands; the husband may have another job when he lives among a chief's attendants, has a trade of his own or peddles goods across the country.

4: Maquet E-5 (1950-1951) 1954 FO42 Rundi FO42

time of the vote, they had considered it improper and impolite not to agree with their superior.

On the other hand, no superior enjoys a purely arbitrary power. There are norms which are informally enforced by social pressure; and this is particularly important for people so concerned about their reputations. Since, moreover, there are several chiefs of equal rank belonging to different political structures, it is not difficult for the subject of one superior to secure support in opposing him from another. Finally, there is the possibility of appeal to a higher authority empowered to control subordinate chiefs. All this limits, in fact, the authority of chiefs, but nevertheless the authority of a superior cannot be questioned by his subjects. They may escape, intrigue, or look for another protector, but they cannot offer direct opposition. The Western conception of contract, derived from Roman law, with well-defined obligations on both parties who are equal before and during the contract, is accordingly not understood or acted upon even by Banyarwanda who have long been familiar with our culture.

Any superior is a protector, and his protection is of the same character as his authority: all-embracing and limited only by his own convenience. In any difficulty, the inferior may ask the help of his master, and, if help is refused, it will not be on the grounds that the superior is not concerned with that aspect of the life of the subordinate. On the other hand, the superior himself will be the only judge of the limits of his intervention, for the dependent has no right to require anything from his superior.

Everywhere men in authority enjoy advantages denied to those whom they command, but it is often felt that justification is needed for these privileges. In Ruanda such rationalizations do not seem to be required. It is taken for granted by everybody, the subjects included, that superiors as such should derive profits from their position. The very high standard of living of Europeans is accepted without any criticism by 'traditional' Banyarwanda not yet imbued with egalitarian principles.

The conception of authority as all-embracing, unlimited, protective, profitable, and of inferiority as dependent, devoid of rights, fundamentally weak, and generally exploited, is exactly suited to a structure of castes composed of human beings who are thought to be fundamentally different and unequal. On these inter-caste relations all hierarchical relations have been modelled. This means that the conceptions and attitudes which have just been sketched pervade most human relations in Ruanda. Indeed, very many human interactions involve persons who, in Ruanda, are placed on a hierarchical scale: man and woman, husband and wife, mother and child, father and son, old and young, craftsman and apprentice, &c., and when there is also a superiority-inferiority situation, even though confined to one aspect of the relation, the whole of that relation is impregnated with inequality.

Another basic principle governing the field of human relations in Ruanda is that of indefinite reciprocity. Whenever somebody receives a service,

4: Maquet E-5 (1950-1951) 1954 FO42 Rundi FO42

whenever goods are given to someone, a return is expected. This return is not the exact counterpart of what has been provided and is not due immediately or at a precisely determined time. By the granting of a favour, an almost permanent relationship is established between two persons, extending eventually to their immediate relatives. Undoubtedly some obligations are more formalized, such as those resulting from some kinds of exchange (*kuguza*), loan (*gutiza*), &c. But many relations which, in Western culture, would result in strictly defined obligations, do not have the same consequence in Ruanda. The man who receives a service or a gift is not expected to return its equivalent immediately. Such behaviour would even be frowned upon. He should wait till he is asked to return other services or goods. This is indeed the intention of the man who grants the favour: to put somebody under an undefined obligation.

There are several reasons for these relations of reciprocity. First, in an economy in which there is no standard value in relation to which everything may be assessed, it is not easy to determine a precise equivalent for goods. Second, where there is no standard medium of exchange, such as money, which can be accumulated without deteriorating, it is usually difficult to have the required equivalent to hand. Third, in a material culture in which the technological development does not allow of specialization, one has to rely on many people. It is thus very useful to have permanent debtors. Finally, and this is very important, the principle of reciprocity is much more consistent with other parts of the Ruanda culture than are alternative methods. In that culture people are not regarded as independent and equal. Consequently any relation will be so interpreted as to magnify the elements of dependence and inequality implicit in it. Moreover, to have power over somebody is an ultimate value for the Batutsi. They will thus prefer to keep a debtor under the vague obligation to do something, some day, rather than receive immediate compensation.

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428 over his brothers. As an act of vassalage, the latter must in turn /each/
593 give him a beer, a hoe, and a sheep. /50/ They acknowledge his superiority thereby, and place themselves under his dependence. In return he must show interest in them and in their legal proceedings, take care of their affairs in the event of illness, defend them against one and all.

[429] Daughters have no right whatever to inherit from their father. Before he dies, on the other hand, the father appoints one of his sons to look after each one of them to take care of her future, her marriage, and to watch over her until she marries.

851 A daughter whose bride price was paid for in cows receives
● 431 a heifer from her father or brother when she comes to show them her first born. Among wealthy families, she is given a cow at the birth
[556] of each male child. Among poorer families, the gift consists of a young bull, a goat, or one or two hoes, depending on the amount of the bride price (1).

1. A cow given under these circumstances is called "young mother's cow" (ichari, umwari). The young bull obtained under the same circumstances is called "woman's garment" (inkanda), because the animal's hide must theoretically be used to clothe the happy mother.

According to the Banyarwanda custom governing the occasion, the child's father must give three jugs of beer and a basketful of cooked food to his father-in-law or to the brother-in-law who is his wife's guardian.

428 Upon their father's death, daughters merely receive garments made of cowhide, hoes, or sheep, which on account of the bereavement are called by the name of "salary or reward for tears."

192 of a cow whereby he gives him the animal under condition that the
233 first female calf born of this cow will be handed to him. He may
[422] even take the cow and keep it until the first calf is weaned, so long as he shares the milk with the owner of the animal over that period of time.

The term umukangara serves to designate the first heifer born under this agreement.

Inka y' inkungurano (kugurana, "to exchange"), a purchased cow. The exchange is effected against a sterile cow or two young bulls, some 20 goats or about 30 basketfuls of beans.

Inka y' inkwano (gukwa, "to buy a wife"), cow given as a bride price to acquire a wife.

Inka y' indongoranyo (kulongoranya, "to help establish a house-
[583] hold"). This term serves to designate the animal that well-to-do
[585] parents present to their daughter on her wedding day. They also supply her with her trousseau at that time: a tanned and buttered cow-hide enclosed in a basket, along with some rings of vegetable fiber, two mats for the bed, a supply of butter, etc., to provide for the early needs of the young couple.

192 Inka y' ichari (umwari, "young wife"). This expression /507/
233 designates the cow offered by the parents-in-law upon the birth of
● 431 their first grandson. The son-in-law must present a few jugs of beer
844 to his wife's parents along with his son. He is given a cow or heifer in return.

The father-in-law usually takes into account what he received at the time of his daughter's marriage. If his means are moderate, as are those of most Bahutu, he merely gives a young bull or a few hoes (1).

1. In such cases the young bull is designated by the name of igishito or uluhanderw' inka, "the side (that is, half) of a cow."

The gift offered in these circumstances rightfully devolves

192
233
[844
43]

to the young mother who has suffered the pains of childbirth (umuruho w' umubyeyi). Her parents compensate her in this fashion for her troubles and sufferings.

Inka y' indundu (kurundura, "to give unconditionally") serves to designate a cow given unconditionally, as opposed to inka y' ingwate.

Inka y' ilembo means "the cow of entry (into the new household)," because the bride receives it as a gift from her parents-in-law when she enters her new home for the first time.

Inka y'indabukirano (kurabuka, kurabukir' umutware, "to pay an accession gift to a new chief") designates the cow given to a chief at the time of his accession to office.

Inka y' inyiturano (kwitura, kwiturana, "to pay a debt of gratitude") designates the cow given in acknowledgement of a kindness.

Inka y' inturano (gutura, "to offer a gift") serves to designate a cow which subjects must give to chiefs by way of a tax.

Inka y' intundano means "trade cow." The verb gutunda means "to trade" or "to purchase through an exchange of goods," hence the expression "trade cow."

Inka y' ingororano (kugororera, "to reward") designates /508/ a cow given as a reward for a favor done.

Inka y' inyibano (kwiba, "to steal"), a stolen cow.

Inka y' ibihembo, "a cow given in payment as salary," for example, to pay for two years of consecutive work.

Inka y' amahugu (guhuguza, "to deceive"), a cow obtained through trickery.

Inka y' umuheto ("bow"), a cow obtained by force.

Inka y' isaso ("bullet") is the generic name for the cows of the Europeans, who have taken over the land.

Inka z' indemano (kulema, "to create"), cows given by the king or by a great chief to someone they wish to honor or to raise above other men by providing him with a herd that will make him safe from want.

844 in a kneeling position. Only women and girls may be present; men are not allowed.

845 If the mother dies during labor in Ussuwi and Bukumbi, a Caesarean operation is performed in order to save the child. It is said that in Kissaka and Mulera people do not dare to perform this operation.

844 After delivery the woman is nourished with a mixture of milk and cow's blood. Later, beer (nzoga) is added to this diet, as well as a mixture of peas and bananas of the nkamba variety.

The navel cord is cut with a reed splinter. On the fourth day, it is said, the navel is finally trimmed. After this the mother 846 sweeps out the hut and places the rubbish in two baskets (ntaro) which she carries out with the help of her neighbors. The women go in a row, one next to the other, and in this way they accompany the young mother to a previously chosen spot where the contents of the baskets are scattered. After the women return, the husband serves banana beer to the midwife, but before that he performs a libation.

846 On this day the neighbors call and bring presents in honor of the child's birth. The presents consist of food and drink, for ex- 431 ample, bananas, peas, sweet potatoes, beer, and, among the 852 Batutsi, milk. This ceremony is known as bihembo.

852 In Kissaka the guests kneel in honor of the father. He accepts the honors standing, holding a wooden spear (muko) in his hand and with a sword (ngota) behind his back. He calls upon Binego and Mugasha and expresses his gratitude for the honor by spitting nzoga (banana beer) upon the visitors. If the newborn child is a boy, the father puts a small spear, a small bow, a nail upon which to hang the bow, and a small shield woven of grass into his hand. When he gives the bow to the child, the father spits and says: "akavuna muheto kandi ntaka uvune (if he breaks the bow, may he not break it again)." When he presents the spear, he says: "arakagua mukicho kandi ntaka kigwemo (if he is attacked in ambush, may it not happen again)." When the shield is presented: "kiliho arakagua mungabo kandi ntaka kigwemo (if he should fall upon his shield, may he [229] not fall again)." Finally, turning to the nail on which the bow is to be hung, he says: "arakavuna ingaugo kandi ntaka uvune (if the nail breaks, may it no longer do so later)."

572 608 Umugore wawe amushigisha nzoga uta hali, iki kihanga utikikwiche. (If) woman yours will refuse him banana beer (when) you are absent, this vow will not kill you.

After this curse he hands the knife to the second witness who rubs the iron against the palm of his hand and repeats the curse. Then the two witnesses rise, lift their bent arms to the level of their eyes, and then slap their knees with the words: "Ndateranya sinkiza (I unite, I protect not)." In reply the two blood brothers lie down on the floor and embrace. Then they are covered with a mat, whereupon one of the witnesses hits the mat twice with a stick and says: "Ndateranya, sinkiza, zubanda (I unite, I protect not, rabble)." The blood brothers reply to this by hitting each other. Later, assisting one another, they rise to a crouching position. This ceremony means that blood brothers also fight with one another, but this is their own affair which they must settle among themselves in secret (under the mat). In the outside world blood brothers may only support one another.

572 608 431 After this ceremony they exchange presents. One of the blood brothers takes his present, usually a hoe, and hands it to his new friend with the words: "End'isuka, nkukye ku kirago (accept the hoe, may it help you to rise from the mat)." The other takes his present, hands it to the first one, and repeats the same words. Then they both arise, and each one gives his witness an arm ring as a present.

572 608 614 628 Through this ceremony the blood brother (munywana) seems to attain a sort of personal membership in the clan of the other blood brother without resigning from his own clan. This is confirmed by the fact that blood brotherhood is not entered into by members of the same clan. I occasionally heard that formerly, in the indeterminable "olden times," blood revenge was practiced for blood brothers as it was for clansmen.

572 608 614 178 It seems that blood brotherhood has lost a great deal of its significance. This may be considered a result of state organization which has caused a progressive deterioration of clan organization. This process, however, has not just come about in very recent times, as may be gathered from a proverb in Ruanda which [245] says: "umwuzulu uluta umunywano (friendship is better than blood brotherhood)." In Ruanda we may mention two facts in favor

643 L. Classe, was able to give him the desired pleasure by telling
648 him that his dancers were the best, although the dances of Kanuma's people from Kissaka had made the greatest impression on His Highness as well as on the others present. Musinga, it seems, shared this general opinion, but in order to assure himself that he had correctly understood the Duke, he asked him to have small gifts of glass beads given to his ntore, so that everyone would believe they had actually done the best dancing. Only after this request was carried out, was he content and scornfully looked down on his bagaragu as defeated rivals. With His Majesty's height of two meters and his squinting, myopic eyes, this was a very funny spectacle.

643 This childish, petty vanity, however, is also linked with a considerable degree of mischief. For example, Musinga twice refused the request of Father L. Classe who wanted to take to Issawi the old, broken-down barrel organ that Father Brard had given to the king. In Nyanza it stood in the rain and had become a playground for rats. Musinga maintained that one does not give away something that has been given one as a gift. This was no
[431] excuse, for in Ruanda gifts are always passed on, and a watch that had been given to Musinga came back to the giver through a third person at one-twentieth of its market value.

[255] There was another reason why he refused to give back the organ. The instrument was broken, and the missionaries wanted to repair it. Musinga knew that. An object that refused to play for the king should serve the missionaries! Musinga did not care a fig for the organ itself. He did not even express the wish to have it repaired, although he usually plagued his visitors with all kinds of requests in order to tire them.

His attitude toward the phonograph was very interesting. Quite apart from the pleasure which this trick of modern technology gave him, he enjoyed hearing Ruanda songs, even though they were badly reproduced. The European pieces, which were technically much better, did not give him any pleasure and soon disappeared from the repertoire of phonograph concerts. There was only one piece with infantry commands, drums, and flutes which he asked for occasionally. The barrel organ ground out pieces which he did not understand, and that is probably why he paid so little attention to it.

692 The verdict means that the judge, not the state, has taken a cer-
695 tain stand. The state, even in principle, does not represent abstract justice. In order to carry out the verdict, one must have sufficient power, either in his own right or through his allies; otherwise it would be impossible to take any action that would be unpleasant for others.

692 In the communities the administration of justice is in the hands of the subchiefs. A person who is dissatisfied with their verdict may consult his high chief. I have heard that the common man may appeal to the king, but from other reports this seems to me quite improbable. This right can have no practical significance for the common man, if indeed it exists. He could not incur the displeasure of the nearest small potentates with whom he has primarily to deal. Going directly to the king means not only a demonstration of distrust toward one's nearest superior, but it also represents an attempt to free oneself from the hierarchy of subordination and make oneself directly subordinate to the king.

692 For the clients (bagaragu) of the king, the royal court is the
●131 first and also the final authority. There is no other recourse, except to the force of arms, provided one dares to revolt. Hence higher authority always takes action, but it also takes into account general peace and order and is not guided by abstract principles of justice. Moreover, gifts to the judge play an important part and are not regarded as something punishable or even inappropriate. The parties regard these gifts as court fees, even though larger gifts are usually combined with greater hopes for the favorable outcome of the trial. The size of the gifts does not seem to be fixed. In important cases large presents are given. Not infrequently the judge is even presented with a cow.

692 Although trials before the king do not often occur, nevertheless all over Ruanda one hears that someone has gone to Musinga regarding judicial matters. This expression stems from the fact that people go to their high chiefs who are staying at the court of Musinga in Nyanza. The trials take place in Nyanza at the compound (bilaro) of the chief concerned. For example, I met a band of people from Njaruguru who were on their way "to Musinga." On more careful investigation [281] it turned out that

695 with this and to secure witnesses who are not dependent on him.

695 A witness may refuse to testify. In order to dissuade him from
431 making use of this right, he is given presents by the one who wishes him to testify.

Gifts to witnesses are no secret. They are regarded as something quite natural, a sort of compensation for the unpleasantness that may result from testifying. That is why one often hears of a witness delaying his testimony for a few days in order to give people a chance to bring him presents or saying that he will testify after he has received his nzoga. In this case nzoga does not mean merely beer, but all kinds of presents, such as goats, hoes, or even cows, depending on the importance of the case.

695 In spite of the custom of giving presents to witnesses, false
687 testimony is punishable. Thus, it is said that Lwabugiri Kigeri, for example, who was strict but just, simply had false witnesses killed.

695 [284] Court procedure in Ruanda allows the accused and the witness to swear oaths. At trials the following form of oath is used. The person taking the oath sticks his spear into the ground and says: "May this spear kill me if I did this." This way of taking
[687] an oath is called kuchulika ichuma. This form of oath is feared. Perjury was punished with death in Lwabugiri's time.

In this connection we must also mention the forms of allegation which are used, for example, when witnesses testify. The one corresponding to the form of oath given above consists of pointing to one's spear and saying, "dakolitera Musinga." This brief statement means "if that is not true, I shall pierce the king with this spear." Connected to this is another form: "bandoga Musinga (I shall poison Musinga if this is not true)." This form is also used if one wishes to assure the king that what one has said is true. Thus, for example, Musinga asked a man whether he had seen Kabare, "wabonye Kabare?" The man answered in the affirmative, "yee." The king did not believe it and wanted to make sure, "nukuli." The man thereupon answered, "bandoga Musinga," and the matter was settled. If one doubts the truth of a person's statement, he may also say, "lahira (swear)." The person then answers, "bandoga Musinga."

7: Roscoe M-5 (1919-1920) 1924
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After the mourning the heir was purified by an elder of the clan, and he then took the mourning garment and buried it in some secret place. The mourners shaved their heads and hid the hair. A medicine-man decided whether the house of the dead man might still be inhabited or not. If the people were permitted to remain there, they, the place, and the pots had to be purified; but if they had to go they gave the pots and furniture away and left the house to fall down.

The heir was purified again by an elder of the clan and then went to buy a cow, which he took to the king, whom he was not on this occasion allowed to see. The next day he visited the king, taking a present of a young bull, and informed him of the death. This reception constituted his acknowledgment by the king as the dead man's heir, but if he proved unsatisfactory he might later be dismissed from the chieftainship.

The heir took all his father's widows except old women and his own mother. He even took widows with children, and the children regarded him as their father.

When a married man lost his father he lived apart from his wife for two months, and on the death of his mother he avoided his wife for one month.

9:Maquet E-5 (1949-1951) 1961 FO42 Rundi FO42

important for prospective spouses? Among Hutu and Tutsi both patrilineages looked for the right connexion. Has the man's (or girl's) inzu a good reputation? Is it well considered at the king's court? Are they rich? Is it strategic, in present circumstances, to be allied to them? What are the relations between their cattle-lord and ours? Individual qualities considered as socially important were for the prospective wife of a Tutsi that she should be expert at keeping a house very clean, at basket work, and at commanding servants. The Hutu wanted a hard-working wife able to help them in the fields. The Twa appreciated, as we may expect, a skilled potter. The most important qualities of the culturally defined ideal husband was his ability to support economically his wife and their children. That meant for a Tutsi that he should be rich in cattle and clever in political intrigues; for a Hutu that he should be a good labourer and a client appreciated by his lord, and for a Twa that he should be a good craftsman or hunter or a buffoon, liked by his Tutsi protectors. These qualities mentioned by our informants are those which made spouses good partners in the co-operative economic unit of the family. In the mind of Ruanda that aspect of the family was clearly emphasized. Beauty and sex-appeal were also highly appreciated, however, particularly by Tutsi.

The normal marriage age for boys was around twenty-five for Tutsi, seventeen to eighteen for Hutu, and fifteen for Twa. For girls, when 'breasts were fully developed and beginning to fall down' I was told. This gives a rather large range of age. A girl could be married before puberty but she remained with her parents till her first menstruation.

According to informants, virginity was appreciated more than both beauty and ability to co-operate in economic pursuits. This was rationalized in terms of virginity being a guarantee of fertility and of stability in the family. Among the Hutu a small gift was sent to the girl's parents by the husband when the girl was found to be virgin.

The prospective spouse was not chosen by his or her future partner. The boy could express only to his paternal uncle or aunt nothing more than a wish to get married. The father was told of his son's desire and then looked for a suitable girl. When she was found, the inzu council met and the advisability of a connexion with the girl's inzu was discussed. When an agreement was reached on the choice, the boy's father asked for an appointment with the

10:Albert E-5 (1956-1957)1963
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rivalry among a man's plural wives and among sisters-in-law constitutes a serious domestic problem. Moreover, there are persistent rumours which have never been effectively squelched that the late queen-mother arranged for the death of her son, the former *mwami*, for political reasons. Maternal tenderness and friendship cannot stand up against the pressures of economic and political self-interest. Moreover, instability is a result, probably an inevitable one, of the very wide powers of superiors over their inferiors.

Ubukuru, superiority or seniority, is everywhere of the same pattern—in the relationship between the *mwami* and his subjects, between parents and children, between Tutsi and Hutu, between husband and wife. The superior is active, the inferior passive. The superior commands, the other obeys. Out of respect, the inferior waits while the superior drinks first, eats first, walks ahead of him. If there are burdens to carry, it is the inferior who carries them—the Hutu for his Tutsi master, the wife for her husband, the children for their mother. A powerful taboo forbids a Hutu to look on while a prince or a Tutsi eats or drinks. There is no comparable taboo in domestic life, but the husband usually eats alone, or he may invite his wife to join him. Children, always inferiors, always eat afterwards and apart.

The concept of *ubukuru* as chronological seniority is relevant to changes in social role according to age. The changes of social status for women, from child and adolescent to wife and mother, then to mother-in-law and grandmother, constitute a progression towards independence, power and the other attributes of superiority. For men, there is a progression of approximately the same kind. The boy during childhood and adolescence is of no importance; at marriage, a man is superior to his wife and children, but he remains subordinated to the authority of his father and the lineage chief; if he is clever and wealthy enough to pay for the beer for the ceremony, he will be initiated when he is about forty-five years old, as an *umushingantahe*, a mature man qualified to serve as a judge and councillor. In his old age, when he has become feeble, a man is obliged to retire from active participation in important matters. The principle of increase of power with age is valid throughout the life-span for women. Nevertheless, superiority is not determined by chronological age but by social role.

To ask for a gift, say the Rundi, is to honour; to give a gift is to like. It is the superior who gives, the inferior who asks. In order to receive, it is necessary to obey, but everything depends on the will and the affection of the superior. He will give if he wants to; if not

he will not give; and if he wishes, he will take back what he has already given in order to give it to someone he likes better. An inferior, whether it be the serf of a Tutsi or a wife in relation to her husband, can protest only in vain that he has worked hard, that he has always been docile and obedient, that he has always liked and respected his superior. There are no formal sanctions against a superior who accepts services and goods from his inferior and gives him nothing in return. However, there are more subtle measures to be taken against him. An inferior, if he has any alternative open to him, will abandon an ungenerous superior.

Sometimes a Tutsi deserts a prince who has not given him cows or a subchiefdom, in order to enter service with one who is more generous and powerful. A son may leave the property of his father if he is not satisfied with his heritage and will enter service with a stranger who promises to give him lands and cows. A woman will return to her father's home if her husband mistreats her, and ask her father to find her a better husband. When those who are dissatisfied complain publicly about ungenerous superiors, they will have difficulty in replacing the inferiors who desert them. However, if one does not find another superior with whom to take refuge, it is necessary to stay with the bad one and to resign oneself to unhappiness, sometimes to hunger, sometimes to death. For, physical violence is the privilege of the superior. It is up to him to instruct and correct his inferiors by words and blows. Or, if he is in a bad humour, his inferiors are always around, and he can take out his displeasure on them. Children expect to be beaten by their parents, serfs and servants by their master and mistress, and a woman, even an *impfura*, considers it quite normal for her husband to beat her, especially if she has been difficult or if he has had a good deal to drink. According to the ideal, a superior is always benevolent, generous, wise and just. Beating does not suggest a lack of affection. If the superior does not give presents to his inferior, then it is known that he does not like him.

In principle, *umutima*, sentiment (literally, "the heart"), is always combined with the material value of a gift. *Urukundo*, love or affection, rather than law or rights, explains the gifts of superiors and the services rendered by inferiors. It is possible that the Rundi insist so much upon the importance of sentiment and love because they have so little of them. However this may be, there is no doubting their joy and sense of well-being when they receive even the smallest present. However, they mistrust *urukundo:* love can change to hate very quickly, they say. Inferiors are always afraid that the superior will stop liking them or will send them packing

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or will take back the cow he has given. In turn, superiors consider defection and disloyalty as the worst of crimes. Even if a servant is insolent and lazy, he will be well taken care of if he always tells his master whatever news and rumours he has heard about him. A woman who is disagreeable, lazy or even sterile will not be chased from the household if she is clever in helping her husband with his business and if she never speaks ill of him. An individual may have confidence only in his blood-friend, male or female. However, occasionally, true friendship ties a vassal to his chief or a *mwami-kazi* to her confidential servant. In these secure and friendly relationships, the principals tell each other their troubles, give each other advice, and remain loyal to each other forever. It is a matter for much discussion when a husband and wife stay together for 20 years, both married and mutually affectionate. However, neighbours, acquaintances, relatives, and spouses, it is said, do not remain friendly for a very long time. Several months, at most two or three years, suffice to create reasons for hatred, jealousy, vengeance, burning a house, calumny, fights, and visits to the witch to obtain poison.

The maximum of instability is associated with the role of the *abatoni*, the favourites. Fierce rivalry is considered normal among inferiors of the same rank—the men of the princely courts, brothers, plural wives, the servants of the Tutsi. The favourite son or wife is envied by his or her peers and must expect quarrels, poison and calumny. Because a superior may easily change his mind about a favourite, someone else will wait hopefully to take his place, In fact, happiness—many children, a good harvest, a cow which gives much milk, a present large or small—is the mark of the favourites of *Imana* and of human beings. One has received, one is liked by a superior, one is hated by all those who have not received. By this syllogism, it is logical for a rich Tutsi to be jealous both of a poor Hutukazi who has just received from her son-in-law a length of cheap cotton cloth and of a rich Tutsi who has just received another cow. To receive and be liked are identical. Together, they constitute the core of the well-being of inferiors.

Although *ubgenge*, intelligence, is normally accounted an attribute of superiors, it is well understood that inferiors have great need of it. The superior must be intelligent in order to exercise his authority, to judge well of his inferiors, to know the right moment to give and to take back. The *ubgenge* of an inferior has obviously to be of another kind. His goal is to make his superior like him. He must therefore understand his character, his moods, his fears, his desires. He must learn how to flatter him and to seem

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protection of her grandparents. It is best if she is obedient and thus avoid blows and dinnerless nights.

Friendship between a woman and her daughter must wait until the latter is herself a mother. If a married daughter is kind, she will ask her husband for permission to go to help her mother during the busy season. From her married son, a woman expects presents. If he is too poor to give gifts, she will mock and shame him. If he arrives at her home empty-handed, if he comes back from a job in Uganda or the city without something for her, she will be enraged. It means her son does not like her, for he has not given her a present. However, an intelligent woman very early chooses one of her sons as her favourite—usually a different one from the father's favourite. She struggles on his behalf against the other children of her husband, above all against his half-brothers, the sons of his father's other wives. She protects his heritage, she does not remarry even if left a widow very early, she prevents the brothers of her deceased husband from taking possession of her husband's cows or from chasing her and the children off of her husband's property. A widow, particularly among the Tutsi, prefers to remain on the property given her by her husband without remarrying. She is thus finally independent of a husband's authority. To live where her favourite son lives assures her happiness. A good son, it is said, puts the happiness of his mother before that of his wife.

A full analysis of Rundi "Momism" is not possible here. It seems to depend in part on the biological and symbolic importance of food, which the mother gives or refuses at will; in part on the maternal sorcery of sacrificing her own interests for the sake of her sons; in part on the psychological power of which a mother assures herself during her son's infancy by making him very happy when she praises him and causing him great unhappiness and shame when she ridicules him. Children are, in any event, obliged to respect and love their parents, that is to say, to work for them and to obey them.

When a woman is at last a mother-in-law and grandmother, she has reached the high point of her life as a woman. A mother-in-law and her son-in-law, no matter what their caste, address each other as *umufasoni*, noble. Their relationship is one of highly formal respect, politeness of the highest degree, no jokes and no quarrels. A mother-in-law is the uncontested superior of her daughters-in-law. She orders them to work, she must be given respect, she chooses one of them as her favourite—the one who works the most for her, who is most obedient and docile. Towards her grand-

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mwamikazi and a wealthy Tutsikazi are matriarchs on a much grander scale than is possible for any Hutukazi. Nevertheless, the character model and the methods for success as a matriarch are quite the same. Furthermore, although the methods employed by women are not in every detail like those of men, there is only one character model for the matriarch and the patriarch, that of the superior. By the same token, there is only one character model for those in the roles of inferiors. The latter are always alert to opportunities for asking some good thing of a superior. If one road is closed, it is necessary to find another. If a husband is not generous, a woman will ask one of her brothers for gifts, or she will wait until her sons are grown. When fortunate people have received gifts, they obviously have something to give, and they thus may expect petitioners to come to them for gifts. Yet again, if a man is muddled by drink, his wife or his vassal or someone who wants his favour will make a request of a gift in the presence of others; a promise given, drunk or sober, before witnesses must be respected at the risk of losing one's fair name. The rules of society provide only for a minimum of happiness. One must rely upon intelligence to point the way to supplementary means and to profit from every favourable circumstance.

Like any normal citizen of Burundi, a Rundikazi desires as much power and authority as possible, which is to say, numerous inferiors, including children, workers, feudal followers; wealth, which is to say, for women who can inherit nothing, many gifts from men and from wealthier women; respect and love, which amounts to having many inferiors; elegance, which is again to say many gifts, but also education in the home of a princess; many children, which depends on the will of *Imana;* protection against one's enemies, that is, against one's rivals and one's mother-in-law; and the good luck to retain what has been received from *Imana* and from human beings, which again depends on *Imana* and also on one's own intelligence, courage and strength of character. There is decidedly no psychological conflict in women of strong character, nor is there any conflict between feminine ambitions and social norms. Everything is taken care of by the functional norms of the society.

A woman starts very young to calculate what she needs in order to be happy. From her father she expects little more than that he will find her a husband who is wealthy and reasonable, or better yet, tractable; that he will allow her to return home if she is not satisfied with a husband and will find her a better one; that he will from time to time give her gifts. If a father has a tendency to turn